

121 informants or locations, another dimension is added here. Individ-
114 uals can be identified and the establishment of trans-generational
124 continuity is possible.

121 Two areas of theoretical concern particularly lend themselves to
* 177 investigation under the fortuitous circumstances of being able to
[161] trace changes occurring over time among a specific group. The first
is cultural change; the second, human population control mechanisms.

175 In regard to cultural change, until forty years ago the Caribs
* 177 of the Upper Barama River were adapting to the equatorial rain
182 forest with essentially a lithic technology. They combined hunting,
• [22] fishing, and collecting with a semi-nomadic form of horticulture.

[241] Currently, the majority of these Caribs are settled at a community
* 177 known as Baramita Air Strip. They engage in wage employment, make
[465] use of regional markets for local products, participate in agricul-
[438] tural development programs, and benefit from national medical
[242] programs. From a position of relative isolation in the rain forest,
[657] this group has been increasingly encapsulated in the national
[161] political economy. Attending this development has been changes in
their population size and composition as well as internal organiza-
tion. These changes are a major focus of the present study.

121 In pursuing the analysis of these changes, cultural materialism
is relied upon as the most economical mode of explanation. Among
others, Harris (1968) has proposed that techno-environmental
determinants can serve in a comparative approach to cultural
adaptation. One example of this approach is Murphy and Steward's
comparison of the Mundurucu of Brazil and the Northeastern

241 field. Individuals have cut extensive fields to support their
*177 competition for the office of Amerindian captain. The impact of these
654 recent departures marked by the increased escape of energy from the
(622) local forest ecosystem as well as the deterioration of the exposed
soil through lateralization at some point will impose limiting
factors on the agricultural development of the area.

222 The forest flora which is gathered for food and other uses is to
824 some extent defined by individual knowledge. The identification as
262 well as the preparation are knowledge held by a limited number of
(463) people. For some fruits, nuts, and roots no commonly known name
exists in the Carib language. This follows from the nature of the
food quest. An individual is constantly searching out these vegetable
foods during the course of his daily activities. Consequently, the
list of forest flora foods must remain partial. Those recorded by
Gillin and additions made by 1970-71 field work are presented in
Table 2.

Faunal Resources

22 The faunal resources from the forest are recorded in Table 3.
262 Those reported by Gillin are presented first, then the current
additions. As the 1970-71 list was collected in the air strip
vicinity, the additions reflect a more careful scouring of the
available foods as a result of a heavier concentration of population
in one location. On an individual basis, taboos against eating
monkey and tiger (Gillin 1936:10) have been abandoned. Also, this
list cannot encompass the many sporadic and minute sources. A person

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 16]

2: Adams E-4,5 (1970-1971) 1973 SR9 Carib SR9
(1932-1971) Barama River

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TABLE 3

FOREST FAUNAL FOODS

1932-33

accouri (Dasyprocta aguti)
labba (Coelogenys)
armadillo
ant bear (Myrmecopaga)
bush hog, dicotyles labiatus, Dictotyles torquatus)
deer of several varieties
turtles of several varieties and their eggs
manati or sea cow
river and land crabs
otters or water dogs (?Pterura Sambahil)
bush cow (Tapir Americanus)
wild honey
birds
 Powis (Crax sp.)
 Mama
 Dukwaru or Djokoro
 Wicissi ducks
 cock of the rock (Rupocola elegans)
 bird eggs
Rats
Tchiri worms and Komburu worms
Kushie ants
Muro frog, frog eggs
sting ray and snails of two varieties

(Gilllin 1936:9-10).

1970-71 Additions

kibihi
saki vinki monkey
howler monkey (Aloutta seniculus)
lizzards
crocodile
tigers - usually the small, red one (Relis concolor)
two-toed sloth (Chloepus)
three-toed sloth (Bradypus)
all birds

2: Adams E-4, 5 (1970-1971) 1973 SR9 Carib SR9
(1932-1971) Barama River

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- 22 walking through the forest is always on the lookout for casual
262 protein. The smallest bird egg, an embryonic bird, or what have you,
are saved and consumed.

224 The more intensive food quest for the larger animals is aided by
411 the introduction of rifles. A few dilapidated shotguns were in use
*177 by Upper Barama River Caribs in 1932-33 (Gillin 1936:8). Currently,
only a limited number of men own rifles and ammunition is not always
available. As a consequence, the local technology of hunting,
including bow and arrows and traps as described by Gillin (1936:3-9),
is maintained.

226 The fish poisons described by Gillin are also in use (1936:11).
137 Rather than the haiari root, the kunami leaves, picked from plants in
the fields, are more frequently used around the air strip, where the
harvesting of fish has also changed. After repeated poisoning of the
nearby streams, only a handful of small fish, three inches and under,
are collected in this manner.

231 With regard to domesticated fauna, there exists the same lack of
a specific boundary which characterizes the floral resources.

(262) Chickens are clearly domesticated. Currently, they and their eggs
are eaten. This is a change from an ornamental use reported by
Gillin (1936:45). At one time, a few pigs were raised in the area
around the air strip. Scrawny dogs who must scavenge for themselves
are kept for hunting. Also, a variety of birds and animals, includ-
ing the kibihi, armadillo, labba, and bush hog, are captured when
(262) infants and kept as pets until they are mature. Then they are eaten.
Finally, a honey bee nest may be moved to a location convenient to
future use.